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GEOGRAPHICAL RECORD

NORTH AMERICA

Swamp Lands of Georgia. In 1911 the Geological Survey of Georgia, in co-operation with the Office of Experiment Stations of the United States Department of Agriculture, published Bulletin 25, "A Preliminary Report on Drainage Reclamation in Georgia." This included an introductory chapter and a description of Okefinokee Swamp by S. W. McCallie, the state geologist, descriptions of a few particular counties and localities by the representatives of the government, and a proposed drainage law. The investigations have been continued in Bulletin 32 of the same series, published early in 1918, entitled "Agricultural Drainage in Georgia," by H[arry]. H. Barrows and J. V. Phillips of the U. S. Department of Agriculture and J. E. Brantly, assistant state geologist. It contains some interesting data about the area of swamps and other wet lands in the state, together with a discussion of methods recommended for reducing that area.

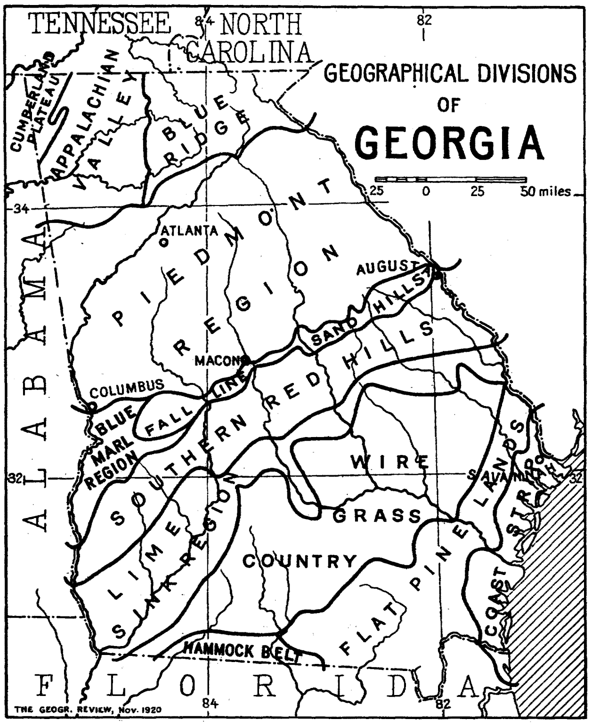

FIG. 1—Map showing the geographical divisions of Georgia. Descriptions of most of the divisions can be found in *Annals New York Acad. of Sci.*, Vol. 17, Part I, 1906, and in *Geol. Survey of Georgia, Bull. 26*, 1912. The map is simplified from one used in *School Sci. and Math.*, (Vol. 18, 1918, p. 704) and in *High School Quarterly* (Vol. 7, 1919, p. 255).

In this bulletin the physiography of the state is briefly described, with a map showing seven divisions, four above the fall line and only three in the coastal plain. The treatment of the coastal plain is decidedly inferior to that of Otto Veatch, who mapped six divisions of it a few years earlier in Bulletin 26 of the same series (reviewed in *Bull. Amer. Geogr. Soc.*, Vol. 46, 1914, pp. 920–923.) A few pages are devoted to climate, with special reference to exceptionally heavy rains that should be provided for in drainage projects, but little attention is paid to the marked differences in seasonal distribution of precipitation in different parts of the state.

Generally speaking, the amount of swamp land in Georgia increases from north to south, not only because the northern part is mountainous and maturely dissected and the southern comparatively low and flat, but also because near the coast most of the rain comes in the warmer months, thus tending to counterbalance the evaporation to a considerable extent and keep the water level uniform. In the three mountainous divisions there is practically no swamp, but in the Piedmont region there is a peculiar drainage problem which is largely a result of civilization. There are no natural ponds and few real swamps in that region, but in the many decades that the land has been cultivated a great deal of sand and silt has been washed from the hilly fields into the stream channels, partly obstructing some of the smaller ones and causing them to be flooded when heavy rains run off the denuded surfaces, with consequent damage to crops in the bottom lands. By deepening and straightening the channels the flood waters are carried off more quickly, and this has been done in the last few years in several Piedmont counties.

In the coastal plain, and especially in the lower and flatter portions thereof, conditions are quite different. On account of the sandy soil and gentle slopes and small area cultivated there is very little soil wash, but several kinds of natural swamps are common. Nearly every stream is bordered by swamp, and in flat interstream areas there are numerous shallow depressions, usually occupied by cypress pond or "bay" vegetation. Some of the swamps and ponds have moderately fertile clayey soil and have been drained for agricultural purposes, while others are so sandy that it would hardly be worth while to drain them. Near the coast the salt and brackish marshes at sea level present still other problems, which are common to almost the entire Atlantic coast of the United States.

ESTIMATED PERCENTAGES OF SWAMP LAND IN GEORGIA, BY REGIONS

REGIONS	FROM SOIL SURVEYS	FROM BULLETIN 32	
		AVERAGES	EXTREMES
Cumberland Plateau	0	4	4
Appalachian Valley	0	5	1–14
Blue Ridge	0	2	0–3
Piedmont region	5	6	1–14
Fall-line sand hills	6	8	7–10
Blue marl region	3	8	1–13
Southern red hills	7	11	4–20
Lime-sink region	7	17	8–31
Wire-grass country	7	25	4–37
Hammock belt	11	32	16–60
Flat pine lands	10	66	53–80
Coast strip	34	66	60–70
Highland average	4	5	
Coastal plain average	9	28	
State average	7	21	

About half of Bulletin 32 is a tabulation of the swamp lands, or "lands needing drainage," by counties. The wet lands are divided into several classes, such as permanent swamp, periodically overflowed land (bottoms), swampy depressions (ponds, bays, etc.), wet grazing land (low pine land mostly), land needing underdrainage, and tidal marsh; though of course all these types seldom occur in one county. The percentage of all sorts of wet land in each county is given, and by combining the figures by natural regions some interesting results are obtained. Similar data can be derived from the government soil surveys, which now cover parts of every natural region in Georgia. The figures of Bulletin 32 may be taken as maximum estimates, for they cover all sorts of low land, while those from the soil surveys are near the minimum, because many types of soil that were classed as "swamp" or "meadow" in the early reports, some fifteen years ago, are now referred to definite series and types (e. g. Myatt fine sandy loam, Ocklocknee silt loam).

The accompanying table gives the results of the computation for each of twelve regions; first the aggregate of "meadow," "swamp," and "marsh" as given in the soil surveys, then the corresponding figures from Bulletin 32, and finally the lowest and highest county percentages from the same publication, to show the range of variation within a region. The true regional averages depend on one's definition of swamp but are evidently somewhere between the figures in the first two columns.

While these figures cannot be depended upon absolutely, as already indicated, they show at a glance the increasing swampiness with decreasing altitude and relief and increasing proportion of summer rain. Similar statistics for other states, particularly neighboring ones, would doubtless illustrate the same principles. (For data on swamps for six divisions of North Carolina and nineteen of Alabama and West Florida, computed from soil surveys, see *Journ. Elisha Mitchell Sci. Soc.*, Vol. 33, p. 118; *Soil Science*, Vol. 4, 1917, pp. 105–106.)

ROLAND M. HARPER

EUROPE

The Port of Riga. In a recent number of *Meereskunde* (No. 152, 1919) Richard Pohle sketches the growth of the town and port of Riga. Riga is described as being not a part of eastern Germany but rather an outpost of German culture. The neighboring region on the north exhibits the typical landscape of a dune country. On the south it is moorland. The Riga region is on the edge of the great forest belt of northern Russia. By its position at the head of a deep bay the city early became a central trading town. London, Flemish, Dutch, and German merchants came thither for the trade with Moscow. In 1280 Riga became a Hanseatic town and soon grew to be a factor in the commercial world. But through its settlement by German colonists and knights of Christian brotherhoods it was always more closely associated with Germany than any other state until modern time. At various periods it was commercially dependent upon Lübeck and Hamburg. The Polish overlordship was succeeded by Swedish control in 1621. The eighteenth century saw the gradual advance of Russian power to the Baltic.

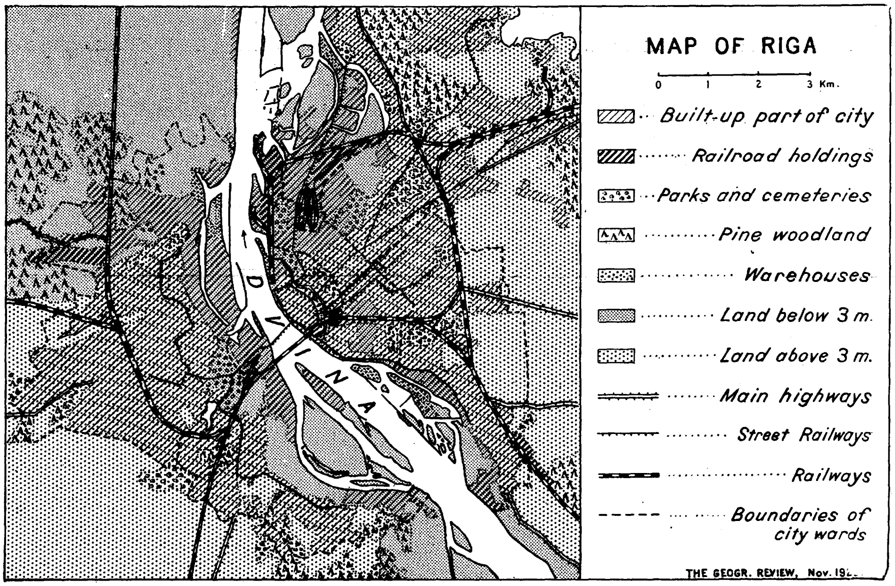

FIG. 1—Map of Riga (redrawn from Figure 6 of the paper discussed in the text).

The physical aspect of the city was entirely changed during the nineteenth century. In 1860 its walls disappeared. From 1875 to 1896 its port was practically rebuilt. From 1867 to 1897 its population increased from 103,000 to 281,000. Letts constituted 42 per cent of the population in 1897, Germans 25 per cent, Russians 17 per cent. German, Lettish, and Esth Protestants made up 63 per cent of the population, Catholics 10 per cent, Jews 8 per cent. The rest were composed chiefly of Greek Orthodox and Uniats.

In former times the harbor of Riga was frozen from two to three months a year, but ice breakers have reduced this to a month at the most. Of the total tonnage (nearly two million net registered tons in 1912) about one-fourth was Russian, less than one-fifth German, one-sixth British, one-ninth Danish. There is a considerable river commerce tributary to Riga. The valley of the Dvina had the first and most important railway into the Russian empire. At the present time three principal Russian railways converge at Riga, and they tap the region extending from the northern forest country across the black earth belt and into the steppe region. A map (Fig. 3, p. 27) shows the hinterland of the Baltic ports of Russia and especially the rail hinterland of Riga. In 1913 the Baltic ports handled 40 per cent of the exports and 47 per cent of the imports of all Russia—Riga alone taking care of 17 per cent in value of the exports. Thanks to its transit trade the city has been since 1896 the most important export port of the Russian Empire.

Two other extremely interesting maps accompany the paper. They show the divisions of space in and about Riga. We reproduce one of them as an example of the geographical treatment of a city (see Fig. 2 on p. 35). The paper contains an analysis of the various city elements with a description of the characteristics and functions of each part in terms of the origin of the materials of commerce and life of the city. The author has worked out an unusually interesting analysis of the surroundings of a city and its internal structure and functions.

Population Distribution in the French Alps. A very complete geographical monography of the French Alps is promised through the work of the Institut de Géographie Alpine of Grenoble. The latest contribution towards this end is a study of population distribution by Jean Robert (La densité de population des Alpes françaises d'après le dénombrement de 1911, *Rev. de Géogr. Alpine*, Vol. 8, 1920, pp. 5–124). The author's viewpoint is important. "The density of population is as it were the synthesis of all the geographical phenomena: it expresses eloquently the manner in which man has taken advantage of the land he occupies."

This conception leads to the principle adopted for the expression of population density. It is determined not according to the total land area but according to the "exploitable" area. The unutilizable spaces—the snows, glaciers, rock peaks—are excluded. The method of arriving at this area is interesting. For detailed analysis of such a feature as population distribution in such a region it is inadvisable to use an arbitrary limit such as the 2,000-meter line adopted by Blanchard in the determination of the mean altitude of the natural regions of the French Alps (*Recueil des Trav. de l'Inst. de Géogr. Alpine*, Vol. 7, 1919, pp. 245–308). On the 1:50,000 maps, with the aid of supplementary sources including photographs, were traced the upper limits of the forests and pastures including all features that appear susceptible of human utilization. An example will illustrate the significance of this method of expression. In the northern Alps the central massifs have a population of 28 per square kilometer (72 per square mile) in relation to the exploitable surface, of 15 (38 per square mile) only if the total surface is considered. Thus proportionally in spite of the high altitude they support a population as great or slightly greater than the lower, richer region of the pre-Alps (27 per square kilometer). The central massifs make the most use of the abundant pastures, the pre-Alps suffer from inaccessibility and the superior attraction of adjacent regions. The hydroelectric establishments for instance are all on the periphery of the pre-Alps, if not entirely beyond its borders, and distribute power to the neighboring valleys with little profit to the mountains. A table of the exploitable areas by natural region and by commune is given at the end of the article. It might advantageously have been paralleled by the total areas; for, after all, the unexploitable area has a significance if merely of negative character.

The first question of expression settled, the second that arises is the disposition of the rural and urban populations. Urban population is here considered as that residing in agglomerations of over 3,000. In subtracting such from the total figure an allowance of 3,000 is made for each agglomeration.

The large scale map (1:3,000,000) on which results are shown is a "mosaic," the author considering the "speaking" qualities of this to be greater than the isometric form for a region where the contrasts between neighboring communes are often very sharp. There are, for instance, scantily peopled communes of the Chartreuse massif where, chiefly through monastic influence, 20,000 hectares of woodland has been preserved, side by side with the densely peopled communes of the Grésivaudan valley.

A small map shows distribution by natural regions. There is a clear though progressive distinction between the northern and the southern sections, the division being the climatic line recognized by E. Bénévent (La pluviosité de la France du Sud-Est, *Recueil des Trav. de l'Inst. de Géogr. Alpine*, Vol. 1, 1913, pp. 323–442), which may here be approximately described as the divide between the basins of the Isère and the Durance. The average density of the northern section is 40 to the square kilometer (103 per square mile), 55 (142) if cities be included; for the southern section it is 17 (44), 19 (49) with the inclusion of cities.

The mean altitude of the southern Alps is lower, but in other respects it is less favorable to human occupation than the northern region. Structure, relief, and the nature of the rocks make a country more broken and difficult of access. In addition to this are climatic disadvantages. Dryness of the limestone areas is accentuated by less abundant precipitation. Alluvial and glacial deposits are more scant. There is nothing in the south comparable with the dense population of the transverse gorges, *cluses*, of Faucigny, Annecy, Chambéry, Grenoble, and the subalpine depression of the north. The nearest approach is in the depression of the Durance, where some progress has been made in the line of industrial development. On the contrary the disproportion between north and south diminishes at higher altitudes. It is noteworthy that here the most fully occupied, if not the most densely peopled, zone is that from 400 to 1,000 meters.

The population map also includes certain bordering regions. Thus the Riviera is included, though strictly it is extra-Alpine. There is a close relation between the Côte d'Azur and the mountains to whose protection its marvelous climate is due. The population density (total) of the narrow strip is 503 to the square kilometer (1,300 to the square mile). It is impossible to separate the rural and urban elements, for most of the agglomerations have more than 3,000 inhabitants.

AFRICA

A Phase of the Racial Problem in South Africa. In the intensive study of the distribution of the white man in South Africa, and of the relation of that distribution to native races, important data may be obtained from the paper "The Transition from Tribalism to Individualism" by J. R. Kingon (*South African Journ. of Sci.*, September, 1919, pp. 113–157). It deals chiefly with the change now taking place in the tribal system of government of the natives and sets forth the various factors that operate in the evolution of the native peoples of Kaffirland where, before the white colonists came, the natives lived a pastoral life, moving about with their herds from place to place in search of pasturage and cultivating small gardens for immediate needs. Their wealth was represented by cattle, sheep, and goats. Corn and sugar cane were among the products of the gardens. Flexibility in physical arrangements was a principal object so that the tribe could flee at a moment's notice and take its cattle to a place of safety.

Only when the white man came into the region was this general economic system seriously changed. The white man set up a border zone to the east of the colony. This however was transgressed by the native to the confusion of the white settlers. He drove off the cattle of the farmers and kept the country in a constant state of unrest. After various less successful expedients had been tried a chain of forts was built along the frontier at intervals, and by signaling between forts the military were able greatly to reduce cattle stealing. With the extension of the colony eastward more and more of Kaffir territory was absorbed by the white man. In 1820 British settlers began to arrive and were established in the eastern part of the colony. The inclosure of farms commenced and the native found himself more and more limited and inconvenienced. If he stayed on his farm, he had to pay rent; if he moved off it, he had to go to the native reserve or settle wherever he could on unoccupied lands. Side by side with these limitations in the occupation of land and the number of his flocks and herds other factors operated.

Formerly the native lived in a state of tribalism, the cementing principle of which was witchcraft; he accepted the principle of communism in land and of complete responsibility to the tribe from the standpoint of customs and ownership of property. He now found himself forced to accept the principles of *individualism* and *private property in land.* In his education through missionary agencies he acquired a new psychology. The opening up of roads favored the spread of the new ideas. Many trading stations were established. Periodical fairs were instituted, the most important being the one at Fort Wiltshire (Willshire) in 1824. The reports of local British officials for 1910 and 1912 show a rapid increase in the number of trading stations, the volume of goods, and the effect upon the native in development of the wealth of his country and his way of life. European clothing has been adopted, dwelling houses improved, flocks and herds increased, and there has also developed an export trade in wool and hides.

The effect of these changes upon the native way of life is perhaps equally clearly seen if we turn to two examples of the former "accidents" that affected him. Tribal wars have been greatly reduced. We do not have in recent times a repetition of such wars as that which terminated in 1835 (that extended over a period of about 18 years) and which destroyed about one-half the population of an immense region west of Delagoa Bay. Formerly the native herds were devastated by drought. The effects are now ameliorated somewhat. In 1912 the cattle fever broke out among the herds of the eastern coast and wrought such havoc as to affect the supply of milk. Plowing was cut down, and the subsequent harvest reduced. With continuing drought and the drying up of the pasturage the animals died in large numbers. For long a state of exigency existed in the matter of food which would surely have led to very great mortality had it not been for the better organization of the present in the matters of transportation and relief.

ASIA

Explorations in Inner Arabia. On current maps of Arabia the unexplored central upland of the southern Nejd is represented as trending in a direction west of north, and the main drainage lines are made to run northeast. Of the people we have hitherto known very little, and almost all of that came into the literature secondhand. Sadlier, in 1819, was the first European to cross Arabia from sea to sea and one of the first to reach Nejd. Only a few explorers, mostly English, have since penetrated any portion of the vast interior. Permanent water pockets were reported and substantial resources were supposed to exist; for there were many towns, and the native Wahabi warriors gave frequent proof of their power. They have always led a wholly independent political life and have never been conquered throughout history. Doughty's admirable "Travels in Arabia Deserta" (1888) and Hogarth's "The Penetration of Arabia" (1904), have long been the standard writings on the subject. As late as 1904, according to Hogarth, a descriptive geography of Arabia by Ritter, published in 1845, was still a first-rate authority for nearly a million square miles of that country, so inaccessible had it been for modern explorers. Of the great southern desert we knew "about as much as Istakhri knew in the tenth century" according to the same authority, who estimates that not a hundredth part of the peninsula has been mathematically surveyed. In 1909 Carruthers made a remarkable journey in northwestern Arabia which was described (Douglas Carruthers: A Journey in North-Western Arabia, *Geogr. Journ.*, Vol. 35, 1910, pp. 225–248) in a manner worthy of comparison with Doughty's best. The Southern Nejd has recently been explored by Philby who has given a striking picture of the physical and human geography of the region. Philby's account is accompanied by a map showing detailed locations and relief (H. St. J. B. Philby: Southern Najd, *Geogr. Journ.*, Vol. 55, 1920, pp. 161–191). It seems as if this vast desert region (Arabia is more than a third as large as the United States) were being conquered piece by piece by men of exceptional character, the literary quality of whose writings reflects the fine spirit of their extraordinary feats.

The central geographic feature of inner Arabia is the Tuwaik, an upland belt 400 miles long with an average breadth of 20 miles, falling off steeply to the west and gently to the east after the manner of a cuesta. Through it run eastward-trending drainage lines, and about it and in favorable spots within it are groups of oases "which alone give the Arabs a respite from the nomad life." East of it is a barren desert which extends from an elevation of 2,000 feet above sea level to the coast of the Persian Gulf. Westward the Tuwaik is also flanked by sand deserts. To the south is a desert that has never been traversed by a European, a wide expanse of waterless country which includes the so-called Empty Quarter. Surrounded by regions difficult to cross, the central upland is the home of the Wahabis who are hostile to all about them and have within themselves suffered dissension and war.

The towns are of course closely connected with the drainage lines. One of the most interesting is the oasis of Hair. The population of four hundred consists entirely of people of negro descent who cultivate the groves and fields for the absentee owners—Bedouin tribes that visit the oasis but once a year at the date harvest to collect their rents and also during the month Ramadan "if it falls in the summer season." In one oasis, locally known as "the Wadi," the nomadic dependents of the oasis "retain their proprietary rights in the palm groves while wandering with their flocks and herds in the sand deserts to the north and south." There is the once important city of Yamama which appears to have been destroyed by a flood. The site is now occupied by a straggling village in the angle between two stream channels. Other towns suffer even today. In at least one wadi water flowed in 1917 where it had never flowed before within the memory of man, working havoc with the oases along the course of the channel and taking heavy toll of human lives, camels, and sheep. One of the temporary but inconvenient effects of such a flood is to fill all the village wells located along the gravelly floors of the dry stream beds.

Hauta is hemmed in by high cliffs and with its date groves, corn lands, and deep wells is both self-supporting and impregnable. No Arab force besieging it could long sustain life in the arid desert about it. Today Ibn Saud, Chief of the Wahabis, allows this town complete political autonomy, receiving only a small tax by way of recognition. Many new Wahabi towns have sprung up throughout the country in the last decade as a result of a vigorous religious revival known as the Ikhwan movement. The scattered character of the settlements has made it difficult to keep them in a state of political coherence, since there is no effective rallying point in which discipline can be taught and strength accumulated for wide conquest. The present ruler has made a dozen towns and villages of recent growth centers of military, political, and religious power.

One of the interesting minor pieces of information relates to the trade that crosses the region from the east-coast ports of the Persian Gulf to the west-coast ports on the Red Sea—piece goods, tea, sugar, and groceries passing westward in exchange for the coffee of Yemen.

Of different character but of first importance is a recent paper on Arabia by D. G. Hogarth (War and Discovery in Arabia, *Geogr. Journ.*, Vol. 55, 1920, pp. 422–439). The paper is a summary of recent explorations in their bearing on two chief points: (1) the character of the watershed between the northeastward-flowing drainage of the back country of the Hedjaz and that of the Red Sea slope; (2) the longitudes of inland points of the Hedjaz. A rather large body of data on these two matters was gathered under the severest handicaps chiefly by army officers during the war. The information is sufficiently full to permit the representation of the main topographic outlines of the western fringe of Arabia with approximate accuracy. The paper is illustrated by a map of the Hedjaz (which now takes precedence over earlier ones in the matter of more accurate representation of towns and drainage lines), and by photographs of Medina, including a unique airplane photograph of part of that city.

GEOGRAPHICAL NEWS

Plan of the Bicentenary Expedition to the North of Greenland. In the year 1721 Hans Egede left Copenhagen for Greenland; with this event was started the systematic colonization of the vast Arctic territory by Denmark. In celebrating the bicentenary of this colonization it is natural not only to review what has been achieved but also to look forward to what still remains to be done both in administration and in research.

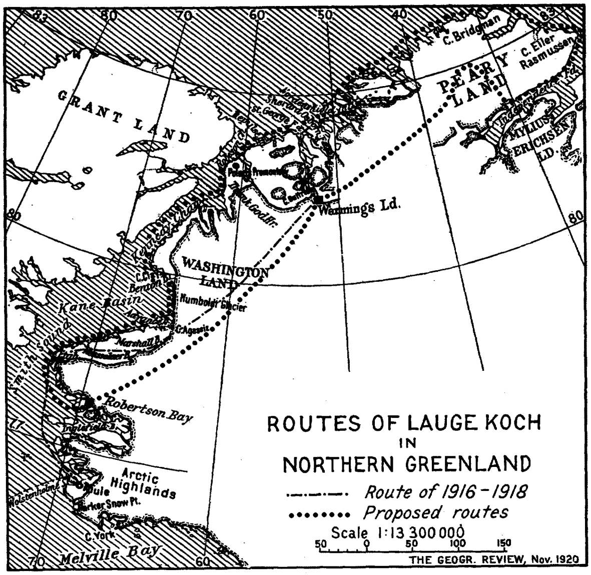

FIG. 1—Map showing Lauge Koch's routes in northern Greenland. For an outline of Koch's work in 1916–1918 see "The Second Thule Expedition to Northern Greenland, 1916–1918" and "Scientific Results of the Second Thule Expedition to Northern Greenland, 1916–1918," *Geogr. Rev.*, Vol. 8, 1919, pp. 116–125; 180–187.

The whole coast line of Greenland is now known. Every point of the coast, extensive as that of a continent, commemorates by its name the glorious achievements of some explorer. As a rule the greater nations were ahead of Denmark as far as the discovery itself was concerned, but it may safely be said that Danish research has always deepened and perfected the knowledge of the new coast lines. Stubbornly and unweariedly the Danes have carried their flag to the north on both coasts.

The coast of Peary Land, the remotest, most inaccessible part of Greenland, has been reached from both sides. The Denmark Expedition reached as far as Peary's cairn on Cape Bridgman; and the Second Thule Expedition, in which I myself took part, reached De Long Fiord. In this region there still remains a stretch of coast that no Dane has ever seen; and the interior of this country (Peary Land), almost as large as Denmark, is still absolutely unknown.

On the Second Thule Expedition, conducted by Knud Rasmussen, it fell to myself not only to map out great ice-free territories, which had hitherto been unknown, but also to demonstrate that geologically these new territories are among the most interesting in Greenland and that the so-called Caledonian Fold, which had hitherto been known to exist only in northern Europe, stretched across to the other side of the Atlantic.

Although these results are irrefutably proved by the collections which in spite of the greatest difficulties we succeeded in bringing home, I realized even while I was working in the field that great problems still remain to be solved. Another expedition was planned whose aim was to be exclusively geological and geographical research.

A headquarters with a wintering station is to be established in Robertson Bay in Inglefield Gulf. From here I am to start on the following journeys:

1. A large provision cache for future journeys is to be taken across the inland ice from Inglefield Gulf to Warmings Land, south of Sherard Osborn Fiord. (The writer's map of the regions surveyed by the Thule Expedition has been printed and will soon be published.) Its transportation will take place in the late summer, when the temperature is comparatively high and the surface snow is melted down or compressed. For this purpose Cleveland tractors will be used, as they will be able to work across the ice-free marginal zone at Inglefield Gulf.
2. The next year the same journey will be repeated in dog sledges to the cache and from there to the interior of Peary Land and to the North of Adam Bierings Land, an advanced base being established in Valmuedalen. From here various short journeys are to be taken: to Independence Fiord, where Mylius Erichsen's account of his journey is to be fetched, and northwards to Böggild's Fiord. On the way back the part of Wulff's Land and Warmings Land that I did not succeed in mapping on the Second Thule Expedition will be surveyed. The main cache will be passed on the way back in August.
3. The following spring I shall proceed from headquarters along the coast, through Robeson Channel, and further to the north of Peary Land into Independence Fiord.

From here I go on to my main cache, from which I start on the homeward journey.

My Danish companion on these travels will be Mr. C. F. Slott, an engineer who during many years and in many countries has devoted himself almost exclusively to the study of tractors and their practical working. On the sledge journeys I shall be accompanied by polar Eskimos.

The cost of the expedition is estimated at 110,000 Danish kroner, part of which has been guaranteed by the Danish Government. The remainder was raised by a committee under the chairmanship of Mr. C. F. Wandel, former Rear Admiral of the Royal Danish Navy.

The Government has also placed a ship at our disposal to take the expedition and its stores to Inglefield Gulf. This ship left Copenhagen on July 15, 1920.

LAUGE KOCH